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brighter than ever before, because the warnings and appeals of men of science have at last, and after many years, begun to bear fruit, or perhaps it would be more correct to say the lessons of the war have begun to make an impression on the powers that be. Within the last few weeks it has been intimated that the government, giving ear to what has been uttered, incessantly and almost *ad nauseam*, with regard to British neglect of science, proposes to appoint a committee to inquire into the position of science in our national system of education, especially in universities and secondary schools. The duty of the committee will be to advise the authorities how to promote the advancement of pure science, and also the interests of trade, industries and professions dependent on the application of science, bearing in mind the needs of what is described as a liberal education. It is stated that the committee will include scientific men in whom the country will have confidence, some of those who appreciate the application of science to commerce and industry, and some who are able from general experience to correlate scientific teaching with education as a whole. I am sure that we may look forward with confidence to the recommendations of such a committee, and we shall hope, for the sake of our country, that their recommendations will be adopted and put in force with the least possible delay.

G. G. HENDERSON

NEW ARCHEOLOGICAL LIGHTS ON
THE ORIGIN OF CIVILIZATION
IN EUROPE. II

It is a commonplace of archeology that the culture of the Neolithic peoples throughout a large part of central, northern and western Europe—like the newly domesticated species possessed by them—is Eurasiatic in type. So, too, in southern

Greece and the Ægean world we meet with a form of Neolithic culture which must be essentially regarded as a prolongation of that of Asia Minor.

It is clear that it is on this Neolithic foundation that our later civilization immediately stands. But in the constant chain of actions and reactions by which the history of mankind is bound together—short of the extinction of all concerned, a hypothesis in this case excluded—it is equally certain that no great human achievement is without its continuous effect. The more we realize the substantial amount of progress of the men of the Late Quaternary Age in arts and crafts and ideas, the more difficult it is to avoid the conclusion that somewhere “at the back of behind”—it may be by more than one route and on more than one continent, in Asia as well as Africa—actual links of connection may eventually come to light.

Of the origins of our complex European culture this much at least can be confidently stated: the earliest extraneous sources on which it drew lay respectively in two directions—in the valley of the Nile, on one side, and in that of the Euphrates, on the other.

Of the high early culture in the lower Euphrates valley our first real knowledge has been due to the excavations of De Sarzec in the mounds of Tello, the ancient Lagash. It is now seen that the civilization that we call Babylonian, and which was hitherto known under its Semitic guise, was really in its main features an inheritance from the earlier Sumerian race—culture in this case once more dominating nationality. Even the laws which Hammurabi traditionally received from the Babylonian Sun God were largely modelled on the reforms enacted a thousand years earlier by his predecessor, Urukagina, and ascribed by him to the inspira-

tion of the City God of Lagash.¹⁰ It is hardly necessary to insist on the later indebtedness of our civilization to this culture in its Semitized shape, as passed on, together with other more purely Semitic elements, to the Mediterranean world through Syria, Canaan and Phœnicia, or by way of Assyria, and by means of the increasing hold gained on the old Hittite region of Anatolia.

Even beyond the ancient Mesopotamian region which was the focus of these influences, the researches of De Morgan, Gautier and Lampre, of the French "*Délégation en Perse*," have opened up another independent field, revealing a nascent civilization equally ancient, of which Elam—the later Susiana—was the center. Still further afield, moreover—some three hundred miles east of the Caspian—the interesting investigations of the Pumpelly Expedition in the mounds of Anau, near Ashkabad in southern Turkestan, have brought to light a parallel and related culture. The painted Neolithic sherds of Anau, with their geometrical decoration, similar to contemporary ware of Elam, have suggested wide comparisons with the painted pottery of somewhat later date found in Cappadocia and other parts of Anatolia, as well as in the North Syrian regions. It has, moreover, been reasonably asked whether another class of painted Neolithic fabrics, the traces of which extend across the steppes of southern Russia, and, by way of that ancient zone of migration, to the lower Danube and northern Greece, may not stand in some original relation to the same ancient province. The new discoveries, however, in the mounds of Elam and Anau have at most a bearing on the primitive phase of culture in parts of southeastern Europe that preceded the age when metal was generally in use.

¹⁰ See L. W. King, "*History of Sumer and Akkad*," p. 184.

Turning to the Nile Valley we are again confronted with an extraordinary revolution in the whole point of view effected during recent years. Thanks mainly to the methodical researches initiated by Flinders Petrie, we are able to look back beyond the Dynasties to the very beginnings of Egyptian civilization. Already by the closing phase of the Neolithic and by the days of the first incipient use of metals the indigenous population had attained an extraordinarily high level. If, on the one hand, it displays Libyan connections, on the other, we already note the evidences of commercial intercourse with the Red Sea; and the constant appearance of large rowing vessels in the figured designs shows that the Nile itself was extensively used for navigation. Flint-working was carried to unrivalled perfection, and special artistic refinement was displayed in the manufacture of vessels of variegated breccia and other stones. The antecedent stages of many Egyptian hieroglyphs are already traceable, and the cult of Egyptian divinities, like Min, was already practised. Whatever ethnic change may have marked the establishment of Pharaonic rule, here, too, the salient features of the old indigenous culture were taken over by the new régime. This early dynastic period itself has also received entirely new illustration from the same researches, and the freshness and force of its artistic works in many respects outshine anything produced in the later course of Egyptian history.

The continuity of human tradition, as a whole, in areas geographically connected like Eurafria, on the one side, and Eurasia, on the other, has been here postulated. Since, as we have seen, the Late Palæolithic culture was not violently extinguished but shows signs of survival, both north and south, we are entitled to trace elements of direct derivation from this source among the inherited acquire-

ments that finally led up to the higher forms of ancient civilization that arose on the Nile and the Euphrates. In many directions, we may believe, the flaming torch had been carried on by the relay runners.

But what, it may be asked, of Greece itself, where human culture reached its highest pinnacle in the ancient world and to which we look as the principal source of our own civilization?

Till within recent years it seemed almost a point of honor for classical scholars to regard Hellenic civilization as a Wonder-Child, sprung, like Athena herself, fully panoplied from the head of Zeus. The indebtedness to Oriental sources was either regarded as comparatively late or confined to such definite borrowings as the alphabet or certain weights and measures. Egypt, on the other hand, at least till Alexandrine times, was looked on as something apart, and it must be said that Egyptologists, on their side, were only too anxious to preserve their sanctum from profane contact.

A truer perspective has now been opened out. It has been made abundantly clear that the rise of Hellenic civilization was itself part of a wider economy and can be no longer regarded as an isolated phenomenon. Indirectly, its relation to the greater world and to the ancient centers to the south and east has been now established by its affiliation to the civilization of prehistoric Crete and by the revelation of the extraordinarily high degree of proficiency that was there attained in almost all departments of human art and industry. That Crete itself—the “Mid-Sea land,” a kind of halfway house between three continents—should have been the cradle of our European civilization was, in fact, a logical consequence of its geographical position. An outlier of mainland Greece, almost opposite the mouths of the Nile, primitive intercourse between Crete and the further shores of the Libyan Sea was still further

facilitated by favorable winds and currents. In the eastern direction, on the other hand, island stepping-stones brought it into easy communication with the coast of Asia Minor, with which it was actually connected in late geological times.

But the extraneous influences that were here operative from a remote period encountered on the island itself a primitive indigenous culture that had grown up there from immemorial time. In view of some recent geological calculations, such as those of Baron De Geer, who by counting the number of layers of mud in Lake Ragunda has reduced the ice-free period in Sweden to 7,000 years, it will not be superfluous to emphasize the extreme antiquity that seems to be indicated for even the later Neolithic in Crete. The Hill of Knossos, upon which the remains of the brilliant Minoan civilization have found their most striking revelation, itself resembles in a large part of its composition a great mound or tell—like those of Mesopotamia or Egypt—formed of layer after layer of human deposits. But the remains of the whole of the later ages represented down to the earliest Minoan period (which itself goes back to a time contemporary with the early Dynasties of Egypt—at a moderate estimate to B.C. 3400) occupy considerably less than a half—19 feet, that is, out of a total of over 45. Such calculations can have only a relative value, but, even if we assume a more rapid accumulation of débris for the Neolithic strata and deduct a third from our calculation, they would still occupy a space of over 3,400 years, giving a total antiquity of some 9,000 years from the present time.¹¹ No Neolithic section in Europe can compare in extent with that of Knossos, which itself can be divided by the character of its con-

¹¹ For a fuller statement I must refer to my forthcoming work, “The Nine Minoan Periods” (Macmillans), Vol. I.: Neolithic Section.

tents into an Early, Middle and Late phase. But its earliest stratum already shows the culture in an advanced stage, with carefully ground and polished axes and finely burnished pottery. The beginnings of Cretan Neolithic must go back to a still more remote antiquity.

The continuous history of the Neolithic Age is carried back at Knossos to an earlier epoch than is represented in the deposits of its geographically related areas on the Greek and Anatolian side. But sufficient materials for comparison exist to show that the Cretan branch belongs to a vast province of primitive culture that extended from southern Greece and the Ægean islands throughout a wide region of Asia Minor and probably still further afield.

An interesting characteristic is the appearance in the Knossian deposits of clay images of squatting female figures of a pronouncedly steatopygous conformation and with hands on the breasts. These in turn fit on to a large family of similar images which recur throughout the above era, though elsewhere they are generally known in their somewhat developed stage, showing a tendency to be translated into stone, and finally—perhaps under extraneous influences both from the north and east—taking a more extended attitude. These clearly stand in a parallel relationship to a whole family of figures with the organs of maternity strongly developed that characterize the Semitic lands and which seem to have spread from there to Sumeria and to the seats of the Anau culture.

At the same time this steatopygous family, which in other parts of the Mediterranean basin ranges from prehistoric Egypt and Malta to the north of mainland Greece, calls up suggestive reminiscences of the similar images of Aurignacian Man. It is especially interesting to note that in Crete, as in the Anatolian region where

these primitive images occur, the worship of a Mother Goddess predominated in later times, generally associated with a divine child—a worship which later survived in a classical guise and influenced all later religion. Another interesting evidence of the underlying religious community between Crete and Asia Minor is the diffusion in both areas of the cult of the Double Axe. This divine symbol, indeed, or “*Labrys*,” became the special emblem of the Palace sanctuary of Knossos itself, which owes to it its traditional name of Labyrinth. I have already called attention to the fact that the absorptive and disseminating power of the Roman Empire brought the cult of a male form of the divinity of the Double Axe to the Roman Wall and to the actual site on which Newcastle stands.

The fact should never be left out of sight that the gifted indigenous stock which in Crete eventually took to itself, on one hand and the other, so many elements of exotic culture, was still deep-rooted in its own. It had, moreover, the advantages of an insular people in taking what it wanted and no more. Thus it was stimulated by foreign influences but never dominated by them, and there is nothing here of the servility of Phœnician art. Much as it assimilated, it never lost its independent tradition.

It is interesting to note that the first quickening impulse came to Crete from the Egyptian and not from the Oriental side—the eastern factor, indeed, is of comparatively late appearance. My own researches have led me to the definite conclusion that cultural influences were already reaching Crete from beyond the Libyan Sea before the beginning of the Egyptian dynasties. These primitive influences are attested, amongst other evidences, by the forms of stone vessels, by the same esthetic tradition in the selection of materials distinguished by their polychromy, by the ap-

pearance of certain symbolic signs, and the subjects of shapes and seals which go back to prototypes in use among the "Old Race" of the Nile Valley. The impression of a very active agency indeed is so strong that the possibility of some actual immigration into the island of the older Egyptian element, due to the conquests of the first Pharaohs, can not be excluded.

The continuous influence of Dynastic Egypt from its earliest period onwards is attested both by objects of import and their indigenous imitations, and an actual monument of a middle empire Egyptian was found in the Palace Court at Knossos. More surprising still are the cumulative proofs of the reaction of this early Cretan civilization on Egypt itself, as seen not only in the introduction there of such beautiful Minoan fabrics as the elegant polychrome vases, but in the actual impress observable on Egyptian art even on its religious side. The Egyptian griffin is fitted with Minoan wings. So, too, on the other side we see the symbols of Egyptian religion impressed into the service of the Cretan Nature Goddess, who in certain respects was partly assimilated with Hathor, the Egyptian Cow-Goddess of the Underworld.

My own most recent investigations have more and more brought home to me the all-pervading community between Minoan Crete and the land of the Pharaohs. When we realize the great indebtedness of the succeeding classical culture of Greece to its Minoan predecessor the full significance of this conclusion will be understood. Ancient Egypt itself can no longer be regarded as something apart from general human history. Its influences are seen to lie about the very cradle of our own civilization.

The high early culture, the equal rival of that of Egypt and Babylonia, which thus began to take its rise in Crete in the fourth millennium before our era, flourished for

some two thousand years, eventually dominating the Ægean and a large part of the Mediterranean basin. To the civilization, as a whole, I ventured, from the name of the legendary king and law-giver of Crete, to apply the name of "Minoan," which has received general acceptance; and it has been possible now to divide its course into three ages—Early, Middle and Late, answering roughly to the successive Egyptian kingdoms, and each in turn with a triple subdivision.

It is difficult indeed in a few words to do adequate justice to this earliest of European civilizations. Its achievements are too manifold. The many-storeyed palaces of the Minoan priest-kings in their great days, by their ingenious planning, their successful combination of the useful with the beautiful and stately, and, last but not least, by their scientific sanitary arrangements, far outdid the similar works, on however vast a scale, of Egyptian or Babylonian builders. What is more, the same skilful and commodious construction recurs in a whole series of private mansions and smaller dwellings throughout the island. Outside "broad Knossos" itself, flourishing towns sprang up far and wide on the country sides. New and refined crafts were developed, some of them, like that of the inlaid metal-work, unsurpassed in any age or country. Artistic skill, of course, reached its acme in the great palaces themselves, the corridors, landings and porticoes of which were decked with wall paintings and high reliefs, showing in the treatment of animal life not only an extraordinary grasp of nature, but a grandiose power of composition such as the world had never seen before. Such were the great bull-grappling reliefs of the Sea Gate at Knossos and the agonistic scenes of the great palace hall.

The modernness of much of the life here revealed to us is astonishing. The elabora-

tion of the domestic arrangements, the staircases story above story, the front places given to the ladies at shows, their fashionable flounced robes and jackets, the gloves sometimes seen on their hands or hanging from their folding chairs, their very mannerisms as seen on the frescoes, pointing their conversation with animated gestures—how strangely out of place would it all appear in a classical design! Nowhere, not even at Pompeii, have more living pictures of ancient life been called up for us than in the Minoan Palace of Knossos. The touches supplied by its closing scene are singularly dramatic—the little bath-room opening out of the Queen's parlor, with its painted clay bath, the royal draught-board flung down in the court, the vessels for anointing and the oil-jar for their filling ready to hand by the throne of the Priest-King, with the benches of his Consistory round and the sacred griffins on either side. Religion, indeed, entered in at every turn. The palaces were also temples, the tomb a shrine of the Great Mother. It was perhaps owing to the religious control of art that among all the Minoan representations—now to be numbered by thousands—no single example of indecency has come to light.

A remarkable feature of this Minoan civilization can not be passed over. I remember that at the Liverpool meeting of this association in 1896—just before the first results of the new discoveries in Crete were known—a distinguished archeologist took as the subject of an evening lecture "Man before Writing," and, as a striking example of a high culture attained by "*Analfabeti*," singled out that of Mycenæ—a late offshoot, as we know now, from Minoan Crete. To such a conclusion, based on negative evidence, I confess I could never subscribe—for had not even the people of the Reindeer Age attained to a considerable proficiency in expression by

means of symbolic signs? To-day we are able to trace the gradual evolution on Cretan soil of a complete system of writing from its earliest pictographic shape, through a conventionalized hieroglyphic to a linear stage of great perfection. In addition to inscribed sealings and other records some two thousand clay tablets have now come to light, mostly inventories or contracts; for though the script itself is still undeciphered the pictorial figures that often appear on these documents supply a valuable clue to their contents. The numeration also is clear, with figures representing sums up to 10,000. The inscribed sealings, signed, counter-marked and counter-signed by controlling officials, give a high idea of the elaborate machinery of government and administration under the Minoan rulers.

The minutely organized legal conditions to which this points confirm the later traditions of Minos, the great law-giver of prehistoric Crete, who, like Hammurabi and Moses, was said to have received the law from the God of the Sacred Mountain. The clay tablets themselves were certainly due to Oriental influences, which make themselves perceptible in Crete at the beginning of the Late Minoan Age, and may have been partly resultant from the reflex action of Minoan colonization in Cyprus. From this time onwards eastern elements are more and more traceable in Cretan culture, and are evidenced by such phenomena as the introduction of chariots—themselves perhaps more remotely of Aryan-Iranian derivation—and by the occasional use of cylinder seals.

Simultaneously with its eastern expansion, which affected the coast of Phœnicia and Palestine as well as Cyprus, Minoan civilization now took firm hold of mainland Greece, while traces of its direct influence are found in the west Mediterranean basin—in Sicily, the Balearic Islands and Spain.

At the time of the actual conquest and during the immediately succeeding period the civilization that appears at Mycenæ and Tiryns, at Thebes and Orchomenos, and at other centers of mainland Greece, though it seems to have brought with it some already assimilated Anatolian elements, is still in the broadest sense Minoan. It is only at a later stage that a more provincial offshoot came into being to which the name Mycenaean can be properly applied. But it is clear that some vanguard at least of the Aryan Greek immigrants came into contact with this high Minoan culture at a time when it was still in its most flourishing condition. The evidence of Homer itself is conclusive. Arms and armor described in the poems are those of the Minoan prime, the fabled shield of Achilles, like that of Herakles described by Hesiod, with its elaborate scenes and variegated metal-work, reflects the masterpieces of Minoan craftsmen in the full vigor of their art; the very episodes of epic combat receive their best illustration on the signets of the great days of Mycenæ. Even the lyre to which the minstrel sang was a Minoan invention. Or, if we turn to the side of religion, the Greek temple seems to have sprung from a Minoan hall, its earliest pediment schemes are adaptations from the Minoan tympanum—such as we see in the Lions' Gate—the most archaic figures of the Hellenic Goddesses, like the Spartan Orthia, have the attributes and attendant animals of the great Minoan Mother.

Some elements of the old culture were taken over on the soil of Hellas. Others which had been crushed out in their old centers survived in the more eastern shores and islands formerly dominated by Minoan civilization, and were carried back by Phœnician or Ionian intermediaries to their old homes. In spite of the overthrow which about the twelfth century before our era fell on the old Minoan dominion and the onrush

of the new conquerors from the north, much of the old tradition still survived to form the base for the fabric of the later civilization of Greece. Once more, through the darkness, the lighted torch was carried on, the first glimmering flame of which had been painfully kindled by the old Cave dwellers in that earlier Palæolithic world.

The Roman Empire, which in turn appropriated the heritage that Greece had received from Minoan Crete, placed civilization on a broader basis by welding together heterogeneous ingredients and promoting a cosmopolitan ideal. If even the primeval culture of the Reindeer Age embraced more than one race and absorbed extraneous elements from many sides, how much more is that the case with our own which grew out of the Greco-Roman! Civilization in its higher form to-day, though highly complex, forms essentially a unitary mass. It has no longer to be sought out in separate luminous centers, shining like planets through the surrounding night. Still less is it the property of one privileged country or people. Many as are the tongues of mortal men, its votaries, like the Immortals, speak a single language. Throughout the whole vast area illumined by its quickening rays, its workers are interdependent, and pledged to a common cause.

We, indeed, who are met here to-day to promote in a special way the Cause of Truth and Knowledge, have never had a more austere duty set before us. I know that our ranks are thinned. How many of those who would otherwise be engaged in progressive research have been called away for their country's service! How many who could least be spared were called to return no more! Scientific intercourse is broken, and its cosmopolitan character is obscured by the death struggle in which whole continents are locked. The concentration, moreover, of the nation and of its

government on immediate ends has distracted it from the urgent reforms called for by the very evils that are the root cause of many of the greatest difficulties it has had to overcome. It is a lamentable fact that beyond any nation of the west the bulk of our people remains sunk not in comparative ignorance only—for that is less difficult to overcome—but in intellectual apathy. The dull incuria of the parents is reflected in the children, and the desire for the acquirement of knowledge in our schools and colleges is appreciably less than elsewhere. So, too, with the scientific side of education, it is not so much the actual amount of science taught that is in question—insufficient as that is—as the instillation of the scientific spirit itself—the perception of method, the sacred thirst for investigation.

But can we yet despair of the educational future of a people that has risen to the full height of the great emergency with which they were confronted? Can we doubt that, out of the crucible of fiery trial, a New England is already in the moulding?

We must all bow before the hard necessity of the moment. Of much we can not judge. Great patience is demanded. But let us, who still have the opportunity of doing so, at least prepare for the even more serious struggle that must ensue against the enemy in our midst, that gnaws our vitals. We have to deal with ignorance, apathy, the non-scientific mental attitude, the absorption of popular interest in sports and amusements.

And what, meanwhile, is the attitude of those in power—of our government, still more of our permanent officials? A cheap epigram is worn threadbare in order to justify the ingrained distrust of expert, in other words of scientific, advice on the part of our public offices. We hear, indeed, of "Commissions" and "Enquiries,"

but the inveterate attitude of our rulers towards the higher interests that we are here to promote is too clearly shown by a single episode. It is those higher interests that are the first to be thrown to the wolves. All are agreed that special treasures should be stored in positions of safety, but at a time when it might have been thought desirable to keep open every avenue of popular instruction and of intelligent diversion, the galleries of our National Museum at Bloomsbury were entirely closed for the sake of the paltriest saving—three minutes, it was calculated, of the cost of the war to the British treasury! That some, indeed, were left open elsewhere was not so much due to the enlightened sympathy of our politicians, as to their alarmed interests in view of the volume of intelligent protest. Our friends and neighbors across the Channel, under incomparably greater stress, have acted in a very different spirit.

It will be a hard struggle for the friends of science and education and the air is thick with mephitic vapors. Perhaps the worst economy to which we are to-day reduced by our former lack of preparedness is the economy of truth. Heaven knows!—it may be a necessary penalty. But its results are evil. Vital facts that concern our national well-being, others that even affect the cause of a lasting peace, are constantly suppressed by official action. The negative character of the process at work which conceals its operation from the masses makes it the more insidious. We live in a murky atmosphere amidst the suggestion of the false, and there seems to be a real danger that the recognition of truth as itself a tower of strength may suffer an eclipse.

It is at such a time and under these adverse conditions that we, whose object it is to promote the advancement of science, are called upon to act. It is for us to see to it that the lighted torch handed down to us

from the ages shall be passed on with a still brighter flame. Let us champion the cause of education, in the best sense of the word, as having regard to its spiritual as well as its scientific side. Let us go forward with our own tasks, unflinchingly seeking for the truth, confident that, in the eternal dispensation, each successive generation of seekers may approach nearer to the goal.

Magna est veritas, et prævalebít.

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THE IMPORTANCE OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH TO THE INDUSTRIES

AMERICA is in the throes of preparedness and many are the remedies offered for quick deliverance. These remedies are of two varieties, namely, genuine and quack; and at times it may be difficult to dissociate one from the other.

Schemes of all kinds are offered purporting to be of immediate and direct value in the program of national defense, but when sifted to the bottom are found to be, either wholly valueless, or detrimental to the cause. On the other hand, the national awakening to the necessity of providing adequate defense has been productive of measures and plans which, if carried through, would result in permanent assets to the country.

The conclusion seems to be warranted, that the major efforts in our preparedness program should be directed toward the improvement of industrial conditions. In the final analysis, war is a contest between the industries of the belligerents. Therefore, a country whose resources are exploited, whose industries and commerce are well developed, and whose systems of business, education and research have reached a high plane of efficiency would be incalculably better off in the case of a long exhausting

war than if reliance had been placed on the military equipment alone.

Preparedness means, not only the optimum military and naval forces for repelling the initial onslaughts of the enemy, but also the power to quickly adapt one's self to the changing conditions brought about by war and to render available the latent resources in the shortest period of time.

It is the organization and development of these latent resources that should demand our attention at this time, as much as the preparation of war equipment for immediate use. This form of preparedness can not lead to militarism, for the results attained will be of as much value in time of peace as in time of war. Militarism is the great danger confronting our democracy at the present time, and war is its inevitable result.

To war the course of empire takes its way and the route is: *scaredness—preparedness—assuredness—war*, but a word to the wise is sufficient.

As a nation we are not sufficiently appreciative of the value to industry of research in pure science. In order to credit certain experimentation, we must see a well-established connection between the work in hand and the end sought. A clear and definite series of results pointing toward a certain conclusion must be produced before we are in a mood to consider the possible importance of the investigation.

Few of our manufacturers have realized the significance of a well-equipped research department in connection with their industries. This statement, however, does not apply to the testing laboratory, whose value has long been recognized and has its place in the factory. The expenditure of a certain percentage of the profits for launching investigations into unexplored fields is another matter.

Some of our manufacturers are still con-